

# A Generalization of Gaussian Sums to Vector Spaces over Finite Fields

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## ABSTRACT

Let  $X$  be a vector space of dimension  $n$  over a finite field  $F_q$  of characteristic  $p \neq 2$ . We define  $L(X)$  to be the set of maps from  $X$  to the field of complex numbers;  $L(X)$  forms a complex vector space. To each nonsingular linear transformation  $\alpha$  of  $X$  we associate a linear transformation  $\alpha^\#$  of  $L(X)$ . In the case where  $n=1$ ,  $f$  is a multiplicative character  $\chi$  of  $F_q$ , and  $\alpha$  is the identity transformation, we have  $\alpha^\#f(\xi) = q^{-1/2}G(\chi, \psi_\xi)$ , where  $G(\chi, \psi_\xi)$  is a Gaussian sum for  $F_q$ . In this paper we investigate the properties of  $\alpha^\#$  and show how its eigenvalues can be computed.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Let  $F_q$  be the finite field with  $q$  elements,  $q = p^s$  ( $p$  prime), and assume  $p \neq 2$ . For  $X = (F_q)^n$ , let  $L(X)$  be the set of maps  $f$  from  $X$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ , the field of complex numbers. The  $q^n$  characteristic functions  $f_\xi$ ,  $\xi \in X$ , where  $f_\xi(x) = \delta_{\xi x}$ , form a basis of  $L(X)$  as a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let

$$\psi: F_q \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

be the additive character with

$$\psi(a) = e^{2\pi i \operatorname{tr}(a)/p},$$

where  $\text{tr}(a)$  is the trace of  $a$  in  $F_p$ . For  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in X$  let  $x \cdot y = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n \in F_q$ .

**DEFINITION 1.1.** For each  $\xi \in X$ , define  $\psi_\xi: X \rightarrow C$  by  $\psi_\xi(x) = \psi(\xi \cdot x)$ .

As  $\psi_\xi(x + y) = \psi_\xi(x)\psi_\xi(y)$ ,  $\psi_\xi$  is a character on the additive group of  $X$ , and since the  $\psi_\xi$  are distinct, they represent all characters of  $X$ .

**PROPOSITION 1.2.**  $\{\psi_\xi: \xi \in X\}$  is an orthogonal basis for  $L(X)$ .

*Proof.* This follows from the orthogonality relations for characters; see for example [6, p. 189].  $\blacksquare$

We now use the basis  $(\psi_\xi)$  to define a family of linear transformations on  $L(X)$ .

**DEFINITION 1.3.** If  $\alpha$  is a nonsingular linear transformation of  $X$ , define  $\alpha^\#: L(X) \rightarrow L(X)$  by

$$(\alpha^\# f)(\xi) = q^{-n/2} \sum_{x \in X} f(x) \psi_\xi(\alpha x).$$

Let  $\chi$  be a multiplicative character of  $F_q$ , and  $\psi_\xi$  an additive character. Let  $G(\chi, \psi_\xi)$  denote the resulting Gaussian sum; that is,  $G(\chi, \psi_\xi) = \sum_{x \in F_q} \chi(x) \psi_\xi(x)$ . For  $n=1$ ,  $f=\chi$ , and  $\alpha$  the identity transformation,  $(\alpha^\# f)(\xi) = q^{-1/2} G(\chi, \psi_\xi)$ . Thus  $\alpha^\#$  affords a means of generalizing the Gaussian sum to  $X$ .

We will identify  $\alpha$  with its matrix with respect to the standard basis for  $X$ , and  $\alpha^\#$  with its matrix  $(a_{ij})$  with respect to the basis  $\{\psi_i\}$  of  $L(X)$ , where  $\psi_i = \psi_{\xi_i}$  and  $\xi_i \in X$ .

**THEOREM 1.4.**  $a_{ij} = q^{-n/2} \psi(\alpha^{-1} \xi_i \cdot \xi_j)$ .

*Proof.* For  $f = \sum_j b_j \psi_j \in L(X)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^\# f(\xi) &= \sum_i \sum_j a_{ij} b_j \psi_i(\xi) = q^{-n/2} \sum_x f(x) \psi_\xi(\alpha x) \\ &= q^{-n/2} \sum_x \sum_k b_k \psi_k(x) \psi_\xi(\alpha x). \end{aligned}$$

Now let  $f = \psi_j$  for a fixed  $\xi_j$ , so  $b_k = \delta_{jk}$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i a_{ij} \psi_i(\xi) &= q^{-n/2} \sum_x \psi_j(x) \psi_\xi(\alpha x) \\ &= q^{-n/2} \sum_x \psi(x \cdot \xi_j) \psi_{\alpha x}(\xi) \\ &= \sum_x q^{-n/2} \psi(\alpha^{-1} y \cdot \xi_j) \psi_y(\xi), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$y = \alpha x.$$

Hence  $a_{ij} = q^{-n/2} \psi(\alpha^{-1} \xi_i \cdot \xi_j)$ . ■

PROPOSITION 1.5.  $\alpha^\#$  is a unitary transformation.

*Proof.* By Proposition 1.2 and Theorem 1.4,  $(\alpha^\#)(\overline{(\alpha^\#)^t}) = I$ .

## 2. THE EIGENVALUES OF $I_n^\#$

To understand how properties of  $\alpha$  determine the properties of  $\alpha^\#$ , it is useful to first consider the transformation  $I_n^\#$ , where  $I_n$  is the identity transformation of  $X$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} (I_n^\#)_{ij}^2 &= q^{-n} \sum_k \psi(\xi_i \cdot \xi_k) \psi(\xi_k \cdot \xi_j) \\ &= q^{-n} \sum_k \psi_k(\xi_i + \xi_j) = \begin{cases} 0, & \xi_i + \xi_j \neq 0, \\ 1, & \xi_i + \xi_j = 0. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

With  $\xi_1 = 0$  and  $\xi_i = -\xi_{q-i+2}$  for  $i \neq 1$ , the matrix  $(I_n^\#)^2$  has the form shown in Figure 1. (This generalizes a method of Schur; see [1, p. 351]. Note that in the case  $n = 1$ , Carlitz has generalized Schur's method in a slightly different manner in [3].)

The characteristic polynomial of  $(I_n^\#)^2$  is [writing  $I_{q^n}$  for the identity transformation of  $L(X)$ ]

$$P(t) = \det \left[ (I_n^\#)^2 - t I_{q^n} \right] = -(t-1)^{(q^n+1)/2} (t+1)^{(q^n-1)/2}$$

$$(I_n^\#)^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

FIG. 1

so the eigenvalues of  $I_n^\#$  are  $\pm 1, \pm i$ . Let  $m_1, m_2, m_3$ , and  $m_4$  be the multiplicities of  $1, -1, i$ , and  $-i$ , respectively, as eigenvalues. To determine these multiplicities, we note that  $m_1 - m_2 + (m_3 - m_4)i = \text{tr } I_n^\#, m_1 + m_2 = (q^n + 1)/2$ , and  $m_3 + m_4 = (q^n - 1)/2$ . By Theorem 1.4,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr } I_n^\# &= q^{-n/2} \sum_{x \in X} \psi(x \cdot x) \\ &= q^{-n/2} \sum_{x_1, \dots, x_n \in F_q} \psi(x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2) \\ &= q^{-n/2} \left[ \sum_{x_1} \psi(x_1^2) \right] \cdots \left[ \sum_{x_n} \psi(x_n^2) \right] \\ &= q^{-n/2} [G(\chi, \psi)]^n; \end{aligned}$$

here and from now on  $\chi$  is the quadratic character of  $F_q$ . (The last equality follows from a well-known property of Gaussian sums.) The value of  $G(\chi, \psi)$  in this case can be found using the Hasse-Davenport relation (see, e.g., [5, p. 162]). If, for example,  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ,  $s \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , and  $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , then  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , say  $q = 4m + 1$ , and  $G(\chi, \psi) = \sqrt{q}$ , so  $\text{tr } I_n^\# = 1$  and  $m_1 = m + 1, m_2 = m_3 = m_4 = m$ . The multiplicities in all other cases are as follows:

Case 1:  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ .  $q^n = 4m + 1$ ;  $m_1 = m + 1, m_2 = m_3 = m$ .

Case 2:  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

(a)  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , so  $q^n = 4m + 1$ .

(i)  $s$  odd:  $m_1 = m + 1, m_2 = m_3 = m_4 = m$ .

(ii)  $s$  even:  $m_2 = m + 1, m_1 = m_3 = m_4 = m$ .

(b)  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

(i)  $s \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ , so  $q^n = 4m + 1$ :  $m_2 = m + 1, m_1 = m_3 = m_4 = m$ .

(ii)  $s \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , so  $q^n = 4m + 3$ :  $m_1 = m_2 = m_3 = m + 1, m_4 = m$ .

(iii)  $s \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ :  $m_1 = m + 1, m_2 = m_3 = m_4 = m$ .

(iv)  $s \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ :  $m_1 = m_2 = m_4 = m + 1, m_3 = m$ .

Case 3:  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ .

(a)  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ :  $m_1 = m + 1, m_2 = m_3 = m_4 = m.$

(b)  $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ :  $m_2 = m + 1, m_1 = m_3 = m_4 = m.$

Case 4:  $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

(a)  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

(i)  $s$  odd:  $m_1 = m + 1, m_2 = m_3 = m_4 = m.$

(ii)  $s$  even:  $m_2 = m + 1, m_1 = m_3 = m_4 = m.$

(b)  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

(i)  $s \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ :  $m_1 = m + 1, m_2 = m_3 = m_4 = m.$

(ii)  $s \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ :  $m_1 = m_2 = m_3 = m + 1, m_4 = m.$

(iii)  $s \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ :  $m_2 = m + 1, m_1 = m_3 = m_4 = m.$

(iv)  $s \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ :  $m_1 = m_2 = m_4 = m + 1, m_3 = m.$

### 3. THE GENERAL CASE

For any nonsingular  $\alpha$ , i.e.  $\alpha \in GL_n(F_q)$ , let  $\alpha^* = {}^t\alpha^{-1}$ .

**THEOREM 3.1.** *For  $\alpha \in GL_n(F_q)$ , define the  $q^n \times q^n$  matrix  $P_\alpha = (p_{ij})$  over  $C$  by  $p_{ij} = 1$  if  $\xi_i = \alpha\xi_j$ ;  $p_{ij} = 0$  otherwise. Then*

- (i)  $\alpha^\# = P_\alpha I_n^\#$ ,
- (ii)  $P_\beta P_\alpha = P_{\beta\alpha}$  for  $\beta \in GL_n(F_q)$ ,
- (iii)  $I_n^\# P_\alpha = (\alpha^*)^\# = P_{\alpha^*} I_n^\#$ ,
- (iv)  $(P_\alpha)^{-1} = {}^t(P_\alpha) = P_{\alpha^{-1}}$ ,
- (v)  $\alpha^\# \beta^\# = P_{-\alpha\beta^*}$ ,
- (vi)  $({}^t\alpha)^\# = {}^t(\alpha^\#)$ .

*Proof.* (i):  $(P_\alpha I_n^\#)_{ij} = q^{-n/2} \psi(\alpha^{-1} \xi_i \cdot \xi_j).$

(ii):  $(P_\beta P_\alpha)_{ij} = 1$  if and only if  $\xi_i = \beta\xi_k$  and  $\xi_k = \alpha\xi_j$  for some  $k$ ; that is,  $\xi_i = \beta\alpha\xi_j$ .

(iii):

$$\begin{aligned} (I_n^\# P_\alpha)_{ij} &= q^{-n/2} \psi(\xi_i \cdot \alpha\xi_j) = q^{-n/2} \psi({}^t\alpha\xi_i \cdot \xi_j) \\ &= ((\alpha^*)^\#)_{ij}. \end{aligned}$$

(iv):  $[P_\alpha {}^t(P_\alpha)]_{ij} = \delta_{ij}.$

(v):

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha^\# \beta^\# &= P_\alpha I_n^\# P_\beta I_n^\# && \text{by (i)} \\
&= P_\alpha P_\beta \cdot (I_n^\#)^2 && \text{by (iii)} \\
&= P_\alpha P_\beta \cdot P_{-I} && (\text{see Section 2}) \\
&= P_{-\alpha\beta^\#} && \text{by (ii)}.
\end{aligned}$$

(vi):

$$\begin{aligned}
{}^t(\alpha^\#) &= {}^t(P_\alpha I_n^\#) \\
&= I_n^\# P_{\alpha^{-1}} && \text{by (iv)} \\
&= P_{(\alpha^{-1})^*} I_n^\# && \text{by (ii)} \\
&= ({}^t\alpha)^\#.
\end{aligned}$$

■

In particular, if  $\alpha$  is symmetric, then  $\alpha^\#$  is symmetric and unitary; from (v) we see that in this case,  $(\alpha^\#)^2 = P_{-I}$ , so  $(\alpha^\#)^4 = I_{q^n}$  and the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  are  $\pm 1, \pm i$ . If  $\alpha$  is skew-symmetric, then  $\alpha^\#$  is Hermitian and unitary [ $({}^t\alpha)^\# = (-\alpha)^\# = (\alpha^\#)^\# = {}^t(\alpha^\#)$ ]; in this case  $(\alpha^\#)^2 = P_I = I_{q^n}$ , so the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  are  $\pm 1$ .

**COROLLARY 3.2.** *Suppose that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are nonsingular and congruent; that is, there is a nonsingular  $\gamma$  such that  $\beta = \gamma\alpha^t\gamma$ . Then  $\alpha^\#$  is similar to  $\beta^\#$ .*

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta^\# &= P_\gamma P_\alpha P_{\gamma^t} I_n^\# && \text{by (ii)} \\
&= P_\gamma P_\alpha I_n^\# P_{\gamma^{-1}} && \text{by (iii)} \\
&= P_\gamma \alpha^\# (P_\gamma)^{-1} && \text{by (iv)}.
\end{aligned}$$

■

**COROLLARY 3.3.** *The eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  are  $2k$ th roots of unity if  $(-\alpha\alpha^*)^k = I_n$ . Since  $GL_n(F_q)$  is a finite group, such a  $k$  always exists.*

*Proof.*  $(\alpha^\#)^2 = P_{\alpha\alpha^\#}(I_n)^2 = P_{-\alpha\alpha^\#}$ , so

$$(\alpha^\#)^{2k} = P_{(-\alpha\alpha^\#)^k} = P_I = I_{q^n}. \quad \blacksquare$$

Next, we apply these results to the determination of the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$ .

(i) First, assume  $\alpha$  is a diagonal matrix with entries  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n$  on the main diagonal. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr } \alpha^\# &= q^{-n/2} \sum_{x \in X} \psi \left( \frac{1}{\gamma_1} x_1^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{\gamma_n} x_n^2 \right) \\ &= q^{-n/2} \prod_{i=1}^n G(\chi, \psi_{1/\gamma_i}) \\ &= \text{tr } I_n^\# \prod_i \chi \left( \frac{1}{\gamma_i} \right) \quad (\text{by another property of Gaussian sums}) \\ &= \text{tr } I_n^\# \prod_i \chi(\gamma_i). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\alpha$  is symmetric, the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  are  $\pm 1$ ,  $\pm i$ , and their multiplicities can be computed as in the case  $\alpha = I_n$ .

(ii) If  $\alpha$  is symmetric, then  $\alpha$  is congruent to a nonsingular diagonal matrix  $\beta$ . By Corollary 3.2, the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  are the same as those of  $\beta^\#$ , which can be computed as above.

(iii) In the general case  $\alpha \in \text{GL}_n(F_q)$  we calculate the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  by determining its characteristic polynomial  $P(t) = C_0 t^{q^n} + C_1 t^{q^n-1} + \dots + C_{q^n}$ , using a recursion formula from multilinear algebra:

$$C_r = -\frac{1}{r} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} C_k \text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^{r-k} \quad [4, \text{p. 167}].$$

Thus it is necessary to find  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu$  for  $1 \leq \nu \leq q^n$ . For the case  $\nu = 1$ , we use

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr } \alpha^\# &= q^{-n/2} \sum_{x \in X} \psi(\alpha^{-1} x \cdot x) \\ &= q^{-n/2} \sum_x \psi \left( \frac{1}{2} (\alpha^{-1} + \alpha^\#) x \cdot x \right). \end{aligned}$$

Now  $\frac{1}{2}(\alpha^{-1} + \alpha^\#)$  may be singular, but it is still congruent to a diagonal

matrix  $\beta$ , with entries  $b_1, \dots, b_m, 0, \dots, 0$  on the main diagonal, where  $b_i \neq 0$  if  $1 \leq i \leq m$ . We find

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr } \alpha^\# &= q^{-n/2} \sum_{x_1, \dots, x_m} \psi_{b_1}(x_1^2) \cdots \psi_{b_m}(x_m^2) q^{n-m} \\ &= q^{n/2-m} [G(\chi, \psi)]^m \prod_{i=1}^m \chi(b_i). \end{aligned}$$

For the case  $\nu > 1$ , we have

**THEOREM 3.4.** *If  $\nu$  is even, then*

$$\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu = q^{\dim \ker[I_n - (-\alpha\alpha^*)^{\nu/2}]}. \quad \square$$

*If  $\nu$  is odd, then  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu = \text{tr}[(\alpha - \alpha^*)^{(\nu-1)/2}]^\#$ .*

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu &= q^{-\nu n/2} \sum_{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_\nu} \psi(\alpha^{-1}\xi_\nu \cdot \xi_1) \psi(\alpha^{-1}\xi_1 \cdot \xi_2) \cdots \psi(\alpha^{-1}\xi_{\nu-1} \cdot \xi_\nu) \\ &= q^{-\nu n/2} \sum_{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_{\nu-1}} \psi(\alpha^{-1}\xi_1 \cdot \xi_2) \cdots \psi(\alpha^{-1}\xi_{\nu-2} \cdot \xi_{\nu-1}) \cdot S \end{aligned}$$

where  $S = \sum_{\xi_\nu} \psi_\nu(\alpha^*\xi_1 + \alpha^{-1}\xi_{\nu-1})$ . If  $\xi_{\nu-1} = -\alpha\alpha^*\xi_1$  then  $S = q^n$ ; otherwise  $S = 0$ . So

$$\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu = q^{-\nu n/2+n} \sum_{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_{\nu-3}} \psi(\alpha^{-1}\xi_1 \cdot \xi_2) \cdots \psi(\alpha^{-1}\xi_{\nu-4} \cdot \xi_{\nu-3}) \cdot S_1,$$

where  $S_1 = q^n$  if  $\xi_{\nu-3} = (-\alpha\alpha^*)^2\xi_1$  and  $S_1 = 0$  otherwise. Continuing in this manner, we find that for  $\nu$  even,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu &= q^{-n} \sum_{\xi_1, \xi_2} \psi_{\xi_2}(\alpha^{-1}\xi_1 - \alpha^*(-\alpha\alpha^*)^{\nu/2-1}\xi_1) \\ &= q^{\dim \ker[\alpha^{-1} + \alpha^*(-\alpha\alpha^*)^{\nu/2-1}]} \\ &= q^{\dim \ker[I_n - (-\alpha\alpha^*)^{\nu/2}]}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$



For  $\nu$  odd,

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu &= q^{-n/2} \sum_{\xi_1} \psi\left(\alpha^{-1} \xi_1 \cdot (-\alpha\alpha^*)^{(\nu-1)/2} \xi_1\right) \\ &= \operatorname{tr}\left(\left[\alpha^*(-\alpha\alpha^*)^{(\nu-1)/2}\right]^{-1}\right)^\# . \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \left[\alpha^*(-\alpha\alpha^*)^{(\nu-1)/2}\right]^{-1} &= \left[(-\alpha\alpha^*)^{-1}\right]^{(\nu-1)/2} \cdot {}^t\alpha \\ &= (-\alpha'\alpha^{-1})^{(\nu-1)/2} \cdot {}^t\alpha . \end{aligned}$$

Since  $(\beta)^\# = {}^t(\beta^*)$  by Theorem 3.1(vi), we have

$${}^t\left[(-\alpha'\alpha^{-1})^{(\nu-1)/2} \cdot {}^t\alpha\right]^\# = \left[\alpha(-\alpha'\alpha)^{(\nu-1)/2}\right]^\# ;$$

since  $\operatorname{tr} M = \operatorname{tr} {}^tM$ , we find  $\operatorname{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu = \operatorname{tr}([\alpha(-\alpha'\alpha)^{(\nu-1)/2}]^\#)$ . ■

Thus the matrix calculations can become quite involved. Their extent depends upon the order of  $-\alpha\alpha^*$  in the group  $\operatorname{GL}_n(F_q)$ .

#### 4. TWO EXAMPLES

In our first example, the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  turn out to be sixth roots of unity. In our second example, the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  are fourth roots of unity although  $\alpha$  is not symmetric; however, their multiplicities are different from any symmetric case.

**EXAMPLE 4.1.** If

$$q = p = 5 \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix},$$

then

$$\alpha = \alpha^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad -\alpha\alpha^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$(-\alpha\alpha^*)^3 = I_2$ , so the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  are sixth roots of unity. To find  $\operatorname{tr} \alpha^\#$ ,

we use

$$\frac{1}{2}(\alpha^{-1} + \alpha^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is congruent to  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ . So

$$\text{tr } \alpha^\# = \frac{1}{5} [G(\chi, \psi)]^2 \chi(1) \chi(3) = -1,$$

$$\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^2 = q^{\dim \ker(I_2 - \alpha \alpha^*)} = 1,$$

$$\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^3 = \text{tr}([- \alpha \alpha^* \alpha]^\#) = 5,$$

which is found using the method of the  $\nu = 1$  case. Similarly, we find  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^4 = 1$  and  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^5 = -1$ . Because  $(\alpha^\#)^6 = I_{25}$ , we have  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^6 = 25$ ; for  $\nu > 6$ ,  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^\nu = \text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^{\nu \bmod 6}$ . Using the formula for the coefficients of  $P(t)$ , we get  $C_1 = -(-\text{tr } \alpha^\#) = -1$ ,  $C_2 = -\frac{1}{2}[-\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^2 + C_1 \text{tr } \alpha^\#] = 0$ ,  $C_3 = -\frac{1}{3}[-\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^3 + C_1 \text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^2 + C_2 \text{tr } \alpha^\#] = 2$ , etc. Continuing, we find

$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &= -[t^{25} + t^{24} - 2t^{22} - 2t^{21} - 2t^{19} - 2t^{18} + 6t^{16} \\ &\quad + 6t^{15} - 6t^{10} - 6t^9 + 2t^7 + 2t^6 + 2t^4 + 2t^3 - t - 1] \\ &= -(t^6 - 1)^3(t^3 - 1)^2(t + 1). \end{aligned}$$

If we write  $\varepsilon = e^{\pi i/3}$ , then the eigenvalues  $\varepsilon$  and  $\varepsilon^5$  have multiplicity 3,  $\varepsilon^2$  and  $\varepsilon^4$  have multiplicity 5, 1 has multiplicity 5, and  $-1$  has multiplicity 4.

**EXAMPLE 4.2.** Here  $q = p = 3$  and  $n = 3$ . See Figure 2:  $(-\alpha \alpha^*)^2 = I_3$ , so the eigenvalues of  $\alpha^\#$  are fourth roots of unity. Now  $\text{tr } \alpha^\# = 3i$ ,  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^2 = 9$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \alpha^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \alpha^* &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & -\alpha \alpha^* &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

FIG. 2

and  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^3 = -3i$  (computed as above); also  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^4 = 27$ ,  $\text{tr}(\alpha^\#)^5 = \text{tr } \alpha^\#$ , etc. Next, we apply the recursion formula and find  $C_1 = 3i$ ,  $C_2 = 9$ ,  $C_3 = 19i$ , and so on. the characteristic polynomial of  $\alpha^\#$  is  $-(t^2 - 1)^9(t - i)^6(t + i)^3$ ; using  $m_1$ ,  $m_2$ ,  $m_3$ , and  $m_4$  as in Section 2, we have  $m_1 = m_2 = 9$ ,  $m_3 = 6$ , and  $m_4 = 3$ .

## REMARK

These results are included in the author's doctoral dissertation [2].

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